R E P O R T R E S U M E S

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CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT, PART 2. WORKSHOP MANUAL.

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THE TRAINING MATERIALS IN THIS MANUAL ARE INTENDED FOR USE IN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT, AN APPROACH TO REGIONAL, COUNTY, OR COMMUNITY NEEDS PRIMARILY CONCERNED WITH MOTIVATING PEOPLE TO HELP THEMSELVES. THE PURPOSES ARE (1) TO TRAIN CITIZENS TO ANALYZE THEIR NEEDS AND SOLVE THEIR PROBLEMS AND (2) TO TRAIN PROFESSIONALS TO MAKE MORE EFFECTIVE CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE GROUP AND USE THEIR SKILLS TO GREATER ADVANTAGE. PROFESSIONAL WORKERS SHOULD BE TRAINED IN GROUPS ACCORDING TO THEIR ADMINISTRATIVE LEVEL AND THEN TRAINING SHOULD BE PROVIDED FOR CITIZENS AT LOCAL, COUNTY, OR DISTRICT LEVELS. THE WORKSHOP IN GROUP PROCESS PROVIDED AS A TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN THIS MANUAL INCLUDES GENERAL SESSIONS AND TRAINING GROUPS. IN THE GENERAL SESSIONS, OF NOT MORE THEN 50 PERSONS, THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES OF GROUP PROCESS ARE PRESENTED IN AN INFORMAL ATMOSPHERE. IN THE TRAINING GROUPS, OF 12 TO 16 PARTICIPANTS, MEMBERS OPERATE IN A ROLE PLAYING SITUATION, AS CITIZENS OF "X" COUNTY. EACH GROUP HAS A TRAINER TO DIRECT IT AND A PROCESS OBSERVER, WHO ANALYZES THE GROUP DISCUSSIONS. ELEMENTS OF GROUP PROCESS STUDIED INCLUDE--GROUP NORMS AND GOALS, CONFORMITY PRESSURES, INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS, GROUP ATTRACTION, RELEVANCE OF GOALS, LEADERSHIP PRESTIGE, FELT NEEDS, DECISION-MAKING, PLANNED CHANGE, FORCE FIELDS IN BEHAVIOR, AND THE ROLE OF PARTNERS IN CHANGE. (EB)

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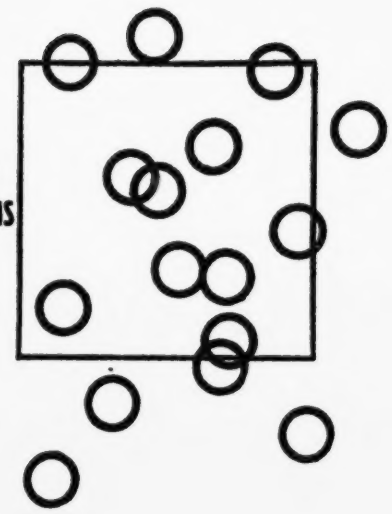
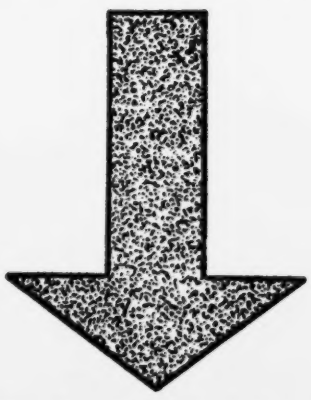
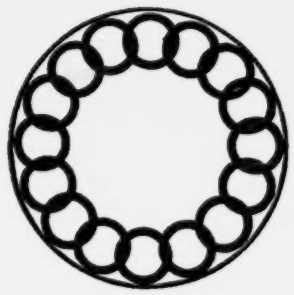




CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

PART II WORKSHOP MANUAL



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The following Aids to Group Functioning are also available from the Extension Sociologist, V.P.I., Blacksburg, Virginia

Circular 727–Developing Local Leadership
Circular 735–Simplifying Parliamentary Procedure
Circular 772–Making Meetings Effective
Circular 830–Committees: How to Select and Use Them

Bulletin 281–Citizen Participation in Community Development, Part I–A Concept

Occasional Paper–The Challenge: Motivating the Poor

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Citizen Participation

In Community Development

by Donald R. Fessler
Extension Sociologist

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FOREWORD

The theoretical presentations included in this circular are based upon materials in such books as *The Dynamics of Planned Change,* by Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson, and Bruce Westley; *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory,* by Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander; and *Resolving Social Conflict,* by Kurt Lewin. As presented here, however, these presentations are drawn more directly from the oral statements of trainers of the National Training Laboratories in workshops in various parts of the country. As a consequence, the original statement of these theories has been modified in the process of transmission from the printed page to oral presentation and back again to the printed page.

Dr. Kenneth Benne is more directly responsible for "The Steps in the Decision-Making Process," and Dorwin Cartwright for "The Principles of Group Process." The latter appeared in an article entitled "Achieving Change in People: Some Applications of Group Dynamics Theory," which appeared in *Human Relations,* Vol. IV, No. 4, 1951. Even in these last 2 items, however, the present author has made additions where such seemed advisable to give the theory added meaning to lay workers.

The National Training Laboratories, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C., have published a number of handbooks on group dynamics which should prove helpful to both the lay and the professional group worker.

RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT: A PROCESS

Resource Development as an organized approach to regional, county, or community needs is primarily concerned with motivating people at the "grassroots level" to help themselves use their physical and human resources to the full. It encourages them to pool their ingenuity, their vision, their experience, and their skills, first in order to objectively analyze their problems, and second to arrive at satisfying solutions. The process itself stimulates self-reliance and helps to satisfy deep psychological needs of the individuals involved.

In this approach the professional workers, that is, the representatives of the federal and state agencies and volunteer organizations traditionally responsible for resource development, play what is for some of them an unaccustomed role. They are no longer involved in developing programs which the people are expected to put into effect. Instead, they play a two-fold role. They first train and guide lay workers in the process of uncovering their needs and in arriving at solutions. And second, they provide the technical information requested by the people to help them carry their goals to completion. In this sense they are resources in the field of their special competence.

This training has, therefore, 2 purposes. First, to provide the kind of experience that will help citizens in analyzing their needs and in carrying through satisfactory solutions; and, second, to create for professional workers a "new image" of their relationship to the people that will help them make more effective contributions to the group and use their technical skills to greater advantage in developing local resources.

Training Responsibility

Where several agencies have been instructed or requested to assist in getting resource development programs under way, the question may well be asked which agency is to be held responsible for putting on a training program such as is outlined in this manual? There need be no pat answer. The task may be assumed by or be assigned to that agency having on its staff individuals competent in the field of group techniques. Where none such exists, the cooperative efforts of all should be directed toward bringing in such help from outside. Emphasis should be that skills required are not those having to do with the specific resource problems of people, but with the process whereby they seek to identify and deal with their problems. These skills lie in the field of group dynamics or group techniques as they are variously called.

Training Levels

When a series of training programs is planned, professional workers should be trained in groups according to their administrative

level, and then the training should be provided for citizens at local, county or district levels depending upon the size of facilities available. The mixing of professional workers and citizens in the same training workshops can have the effect of lessening the value of the training for both. This holds true also when professional workers at different administrative levels are brought together in the same workshops. Difference of professional status lessens participation and prevents the growth of self-reliance. On the other hand, bringing together professional workers from various agencies at either state or county level will greatly enhance the value of the experience for all.

Application To Other Programs

The training materials brought together in this manual are intended for resource development in its broadest application, but they are equally applicable to organization programs of many kinds. Churches, for example, can adapt this training to their professional and lay workers. Here too, however, care should be taken to separate the professional and lay workers in the training activities if the training is to have maximum benefit to all.

Plan of Workshop

This manual provides the framework for a workshop in group process. As a teaching experience it provides for two types of sessions: (1) general sessions, in which the theoretical principles of group process will be explained, and (2) training sessions in which the workshop participants will have an opportunity to apply these principles as they learn to recognize their problems and seek solutions to them.

General Sessions

It is desirable that the total membership of the workshop should not exceed 50 at the most. Half of this number would be ideal. The purpose of holding the total membership down is to make it possible to achieve a high degree of member participation, even in the general sessions where all meet together as a group.

The theory presentations should be made in as informal a situation as possible with the pertinent high points in the talks spelled out in flannel-graph, blackboard or on paper so that the degree of comprehension and retention will be high. Informal seating, preferably in a circle, will encourage questions and discussion.

Training Session

Following the general sessions the workshop participants should break up into a number of training groups of from 12 to 16 members each. Ideally they should be seated around a square of tables where all are able to communicate freely with the rest of the group. Each training group should have a trainer whose primary function will be to see that his group understands its assignment, sees that the members get organized to do the job, and then keeps them

"on course." He should participate in group discussion as little as possible, and then only when so requested by the group.

Throughout the training sessions the participants will operate in a role playing situation. That is, they will consider themselves to be citizens of X county, the county being studied, and proceed as would a committee of county citizens who had been called together to study the county situation, identify problems, and arrive at some recommendations for dealing with the problems. They may continue to be whatever they are in real life; that is, housewives, doctors, lawyers, businessmen, but think of themselves as living in X county. In workshops for professional workers, the participants should think of themselves not in their professional capacities, but as the types of citizens with whom they do most of their work. An Extension Agent, agriculture, for example, might think of himself as a farmer in X county, and a home economist as a farm wife.

Each training group should also have a process observer who will not participate in the group discussions but will try to analyze what has taken place in the interpersonal relations of members of the group during the course of the workshop. At the end of the workshop, process observers will report to their training groups on what they have observed. With the use of sociograms they will demonstrate what took place, how the process changed over time, and the effect this has had on the productivity of their respective groups.

Timing

In the following pages a recommended time limit will be indicated for each general session and each training session. This can be adjusted to suit local needs. A 15-minute break should be provided in the middle of each morning and afternoon during the workshop. These periods of relaxation and refreshment serve an important function within the workshop framework — that of building a friendly group spirit in which communication barriers can be minimized.

INTRODUCTION TO THE WORKSHOP

(*General Session — 30 minutes*)

The purpose of the workshop should be explained primarily along the lines indicated on page 4. The division of the workshop into general sessions and training group sessions should also be explained. The participants should be informed what they are to expect from their trainers (see page 5) and should be helped to understand the role playing situation in which they will participate during their training sessions.

In preparation for their first training group the participants should come to some common agreement as to the meaning of a problem as they will think of it in studying their county situation. The following definition may be used: A problem is a condition which has to be removed if the needs and satisfactions of the people as a whole are to be met.

A PROBLEM:

A CONDITION WHICH HAS TO BE REMOVED IF THE NEEDS AND THE SATISFACTIONS OF THE GROUP AS A WHOLE ARE TO BE MET.

It should be made clear that many ideas which are put forward as problems are often not problems at all, but are actually possible solutions to other problems. For example, many people think of "bringing in industry" or "organizing a trade school" as their most pressing problems. The first may be a very unsuitable solution to the real problem which is lack of employment or underemployment, and the second may be far from the best solution to the problem of inadequate schooling. In the latter case a much sounder solution to the real problem might lie in the improvement of the present elementary and secondary schools of the county. Obviously this solution will not be achieved if the county thinks of its problem as that of bringing in a trade school.

In the same way, a mountain community with no level land suitable for industrial development, with inadequate power and other facilities, and with no satisfactory system of rail or highway transportation can never hope to arrive at a solution of its problem if it sees this as bringing in industry. On the other hand, if it recognizes that its real problem is underemployment, and lines up all the possible alternative solutions, it may find that much of the slack in employment can be taken up by better utilization of the area's forest resources.

(*Training Sessions — one hour*)

Introduce yourselves to the other members of the training group. Choose a chairman and a recorder.

See that the chairman passes out copies of the county data sheets (see Appendix II). Study these sheets and identify the problems of the county as you recognize them from the data sheets. Check your problems to see that they fit the definition of a problem given in the opening General Session. Use imagination as well as your own first-hand experience to spell out these problems. Have the recorder list the problems on the blackboard or on paper where they can be studied by the group as a whole.

Spend the entire period just identifying the problems. Avoid discussing possible solutions.

GROUP NORMS AND GOALS

(General Session — 30 minutes)

Definitions

Group norms are those attitues, values, and forms of behavior which are required or expected of group members by the group as a whole. They may be desirable or undesirable. Group goals are those things which the group sets up to accomplish.

Formation of Group Norms

Even in new groups the members bring with them some accepted ways of behaving as well as attitudes and values which are common to the members of the culture of which the group is a part. The filtering down of cultural norms into a group can be diagrammed something like the following, with variations taking place at each level:

Society	American
↑	↑
Region	Southern Appalachians
↑	↑
Community	Elm Grove
↑	↑
Organization	PTA
↑	↑
Informal Group	Clique, neighborhood group, family.

Organizations which are national in character (such as certain denominations) provide a direct line of transmission of norms from the society level to the organization level for some norms which then may be at variance with regional or community norms (stand taken by some denominations on integration).

As individuals move from region to region, or from community to community, they carry with them norms which often do not agree with those of the people with whom they come to live. This is one of the basic causes of tensions in areas of high mobility (industrial centers like Detroit, etc.).

The Function of Norms

Norms provide individuals with ready-made ways of behaving or thinking which have been tested by man's accumulated experience. Without such norms man's decision-making powers would be taxed beyond endurance.

Problems arise within groups when people from different backgrounds adhere to their individual sets of norms without clarifying to others in the group what these norms are. This is especially true of newly-wedded couples who have brief courtships; often before marriage they consciously avoid "controversial" issues (opposing norms), only to have these erupt as serious "bones of contention" after marriage.

Enforcement of Group Norms

Conformity to group norms is rewarded with praise and acceptance; non-conformity is punished with criticism or rejection. These sanctions operate only upon the members of the group holding the norms; they do not affect outsiders except insofar as they help to exclude those adhering to opposing norms.

Explicit and Implicit Norms

Explicit norms are those which are written down in the forms of laws, regulations, pledges, etc. Implicit norms are non-verbalized but are just as effective in regulating behavior. The implicit norms may be at variance with the written norms of a group. For example: love thy neighbor as thyself—vs.—love only those who are like you in education, race, socio-economic level, breeding, etc.

Conflict of Norms and Goals

The explicit goals of group members do not always agree with their implicit norms or goals. In industry, for example, production goals set by plant managers may differ markedly from the work norms adhered to by the workers. In the state agencies, goals set by state authorities may be at variance with the norms of local groups. In schools, the goal to develop mature individuals; that is, students who can think for themselves, often is at variance with the goals of individual teachers who insist on the rote mastery of the subject matter which they teach.

Sometimes the explicit norms of the group are held by a majority, but are in conflict with the implicit norms of sub-groups (integration). The explicit or implicit norms do not always contribute to the achievements of group goals (church social standards vs. its membership goals).

These conflicts can be resolved best by constant reevaluation of both explicit and implicit norms and goals.

Community Norms and Goals

Those individuals who are not members of local organizations (churches, PTA's, H. D. Clubs, etc.) are little affected by community norms and goals and they are seldom "in line with" society's goals and norms such as the norms of cleanliness, education, church attendance, agricultural practices, etc. These fringe families will, of course, have goals and norms of their own, but these will generally be opposed to or at least different from those of the community and of society generally and will not change until the individuals become members of local organizations.

Character and Group Norms

Since character is often thought of as the sum total of an individual's attitudes, values, and behavior patterns, it can be seen that an individual's character is largely shaped by the groups to whose norms and goals he is most loyal. Where there are conflict-

ing loyalties, his character will be most affected by the group to which he is most strongly attracted in terms of the satisfaction of his basic psychological needs.

The family is the group best suited to satisfy these psychological needs so its role in shaping the character of the individual is pre-eminent. When the family fails to satisfy these needs, other groups, often with opposing norms and goals, win the loyalty of the individual and thereby are in a position to shape his character.

What is a weak character? Is it one who has given his loyalty to a group with undesirable norms and goals? Or is it one who, following the breakup of his family, has not given his loyalty fully to any other group either good or bad and thereby has not fully accepted the norms of any group?

Patterns of Intra-group Relations

There are 3 different patterns of intra-group relations which affect the extent to which members are loyal to group norms and goals.

1. The group-centered dependency pattern:
   a. strong leader to keep things safe and efficient;
   b. high degree of uniformity;
   c. relationships of members highly structured by tradition or procedure;
   d. effective with people accustomed to dependency, but relatively weak with rationally-oriented persons.
2. The autonomous sub-system pattern:
   a. the group is a weak holding company of sub-groups;
   b. the inclinations and interests of members dominate; these may reflect loyalties to other groups;
   c. the autonomy of sub-groups is guaranteed;
   d. loyalty to the group as a whole is weak with resulting failure to maintain group norms and goals.
3. The ideal or interdependency pattern:
   a. group standards support creative variability;
   b. individual contributions are rewarded at all levels;
   c. group welfare and individual needs are well-balanced;
   d. group norms and goals may be fewer in number, but have more realistic relationship to both group and individual needs, and are more strongly adhered to;
   e. effective with rationally-oriented individuals and with others when they have thrown off their dependency attitudes.

(*Training Sessions — 45 minutes*)

From the list of county problems which were identified in the previous training session, select those 3 problems, listing them in order of preference, to which you would give top priority. Include at least 1 problem that would involve changes in the practices of families in the county or changes in their individual farms or homes.

Taking each problem at a time, list those explicit and implicit norms held by the people in the county which are related to the problem and which can be expected either to support or oppose change. Relate the norms to the groups maintaining them, as, for example, churches, neighborhood groups, economic classes, etc.

The purpose of this training experience is to help you understand the relation of county problems to existing attitudes, values, and behavior patterns of local people and to help you see the need for taking these into consideration before launching any program involving change.

CONFORMITY PRESSURES AND WAYS OF LOOKING AT GROUPS

(General Session — 45 minutes)

Many critics of American life deplore the emphasis which so many of our people put on groups and "togetherness." They consider "groupism" an unhealthy social condition. According to them, it suppresses individuality, standardizes behavior, and discourages creativity. In other words, groupism demands conformity, and, therefore, is bad.

Other observers of our society condemn our tendency to be individualists. Extreme individualism, they say, produces people who are unable to serve purposes beyond themselves. To them, groups are good because they satisfy deep psychological needs. They help people aspire to goals beyond themselves.

Conforming Individualists

Before we try to analyze the situation, let us recognize one fact about what so often passes as individualism. Many people who are accused of being individualists are actually strong conformists. They are simply conforming to values, standards, and behavior of groups other than those of their detractors. A strong liberal, for example, in a reactionary community may look like an individualist to his conservative colleagues, but he is a strict conformist as seen by liberals elsewhere. Similarly our much belabored "beatnik" generation is a generation of extreme conformists. They conform to a positive standard of non-conformity with the standards held by society at large, as well as to norms of their own.

Conformity Pressure in Groups

Every individual is born into a group, his family, and remains a member of groups throughout his life. His behavior, attitudes, beliefs and values are consequently products of his membership in groups. If they are sometimes contradictory or inconsistent it is because he belongs to different groups with dissimilar standards and values.

Conformity pressures operate to hold the members of a group in

line with its particular system of values and standards. So long as the group satisfies the deep-seated human needs of the individual he will try to conform to its system.

To some this proves that the conformity pressure of groups is bad. But this is not the case. Actually conformity pressure is neutral from a value standpoint. Whether the results of conformity pressure are good or bad depends upon the group. Conformity pressure itself serves various ends and values — the ends of a Christian, democratic society on the one hand as well as the ends of an atheistic, authoritarian, communist or fascist state on the other.

What Kinds of Groups?

The questions we must ask then refer not to conformity pressure as such but to the kinds of groups to which people belong.

First, what are the standards of the group which are supported by conformity pressures? Do they include respect for individual differences, recognition of each person's creative skills, and insistence upon free and open expression. If they do, then conformity pressures will encourage individuality, creativity and free expression. On the other hand, if the standards of the group demand uniform beliefs, standardized thought and behavior, and suppression of criticism, then conformity pressure will move individuals to accept these values.

Second, what are the bases for the inclusion of members in the group? Is it like-mindedness, common background and character-

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THESE

RESPECT FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

RECOGNITION OF ALL CREATIVE SKILLS

FREE AND OPEN EXPRESSION OF OPINION

NOT THESE

UNIFORM BEHAVIOR

STANDARDIZED CHARACTERISTICS

MONOPOLY OF ROLES BY A FEW

SUPPRESSION OF CRITICISM

istics, and similar race, religion, or national origin? If so, conformity pressures will operate to maintain likenesses and ostracize differences in members. But if members are included because of the unique contributions each can make to the group, conformity pressures will lead members to value individual differences.

Individuals Influence Groups

Despite conformity pressures, individuals can and do influence groups.

First, the average individual is a member of many groups. There is, therefore, competition among these groups for his loyalty. This prevents any one group from demanding absolute conformity to standards which are out of line with those of competing groups. Instead, the tendency is for the group to reshape its system of values and standards in such a way as to retain the loyalty of its members.

Second, each individual has an internal system of values, attitudes, standards, and patterns of behavior which he has built up over time through membership in groups which may no longer exist in actual flesh-and-blood terms. Depending upon the strength of his loyalty to these past groups, the individual continues to conform as if they still existed in his immediate environment. The current group, therefore, has to compete not only with other current groups for an individual's loyalty, but with groups which exist only in his "internal society," in other words, in his conscience.

Finally, group members who understand the operation of conformity pressures are able to withstand some of the less desirable effects of these pressures upon themselves. Because of their knowledge of group process they can protect their own individualities and in time bring about a change in the standards of the group.

WAYS OF LOOKING AT GROUPS

Groups play an important part in the lives of individuals. It is worthwhile, therefore, to know how to make them function more effectively in achieving goals which we can only hope will be in line with the Judeo-Christian, democratic principles of our society.

We must recognize at the start that all groups operate on 3 levels even though most of us are generally aware of only 1. These are:

The Task Level

This consists of whatever the group has been organized to do or is expected to do. In some cases this may be as simple as nominating a slate of officers for a parent organization, or it may be as complicated as organizing a political campaign. Most groups are conscious only of this level; they are "task-oriented."

However, there are specific tasks which must be undertaken by members of the group if the group is to be truly productive. Such tasks include: initiating activity, seeking information, seeking opinion, giving information, giving opinion, elaborating or spelling out points made by members of the group, coordinating suggestions, diag-

nosing suggestions, evaluating the efforts of the group, summarizing, and testing the workability of suggestions in real situations.

In a mature group these task functions are assumed by any or all members of the group as occasion arises, they are not the responsibility of the designated leader only.

The Group Maintenance Level

Members of a group are constantly interacting as they work on the group's task. The failure to be conscious of these interpersonal relations is often the determining factor in the failure of the group to achieve its objectives.

In each group members should help each other work together as a group by providing the following functions: encouraging others to contribute through praise and warm responsiveness, gate keeping or bringing others into the discussion, setting standards by which to measure group decisions, listening, expressing group feeling or testing for consensus, mediating between opposing points of view to achieve a desirable compromise, and relieving tensions through humor or through suggesting a broader perspective.

Groups become more mature as well as more efficient as all the members become conscious of the functions that the group needs at any one time, analyze their own ability to help meet these needs, and undertake self-training to improve their ability to function effectively.

The Individual Need Level

Every group is made up of individuals with differing personal needs which may affect their performance in the group. Some of these needs are physical — the need for fresh air, or comfortable chairs, or a less noisy environment. Others are related to the peculiar psychology of each individual: the need to dominate, for example, or the need to function according to certain well-defined operational patterns.

A successful group usually includes in its membership individuals who are conscious of these personal needs of others and who see that they are taken care of. Other groups ignore them or leave them entirely up to the designated leader, in which case they generally become secondary to the task at hand.

Who Does What?

All members of a group need to become conscious of the group maintenance and individual need levels of operation of the groups to which they belong. Then each individual should assume the functional roles which come most easily to him. If he knows how to encourage others to participate, let him do so; if he can summarize the group's thinking as it progresses towards its goals, then he should do that.

The important fact to remember is that these functions should be taken care of by the person most capable of doing so. They are not the sole responsibility of the chairman of the group. In fact, the more these functions are assumed by different members of the

group, the more mature the group is apt to be. And a mature group most effectively accomplishes what it set out to do.

(*Training Sessions — one hour*)

Take each of your 3 chosen county problems in turn and identify those classes or groups of individuals in the county who need to be involved in finding solutions to these problems. Decide at what level (county, community, neighborhood) these individuals should be organized in order that conformity pressures may be utilized to bring about the necessary changes in attitudes, values, or behavior patterns necessary to achieve solutions. Consider also the possibility of using already existing organizations such as PTA's, churches, civic clubs, etc., for this purpose.

This experience is intended to increase your recognition of the fact that conformity pressures can be utilized as effective motivating forces for constructive ends.

CIRCULAR PROCESS OF SOCIAL INTERACTION

(*General Session — 45 minutes*)

The success of a group in carrying out its task depends a great deal on the relationships which take place among its members. Often these take on a fixed pattern early in the history of the group. If so, the group denies itself access to a whole store of resources which would greatly facilitate accomplishment of its objectives.

And once these relationships fall into a set pattern, they tend to remain fixed for the life of the group.

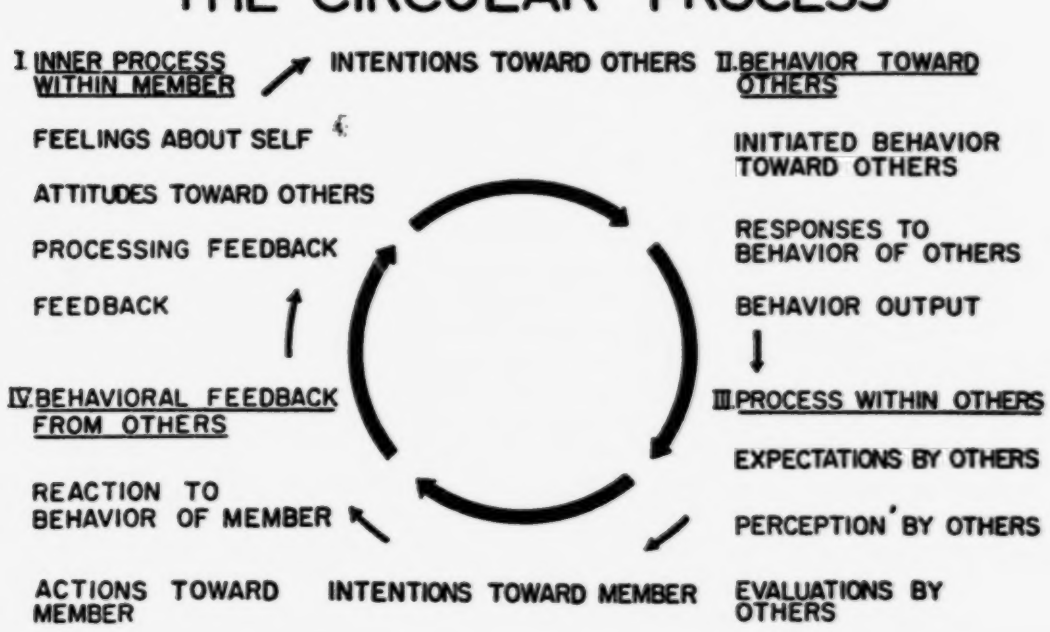
In these fixed relationships the contributions each member is able to make are determined not by his capabilities but by the notions other people acquire about him at the start. What he does subsequently generally fortifies their misconceptions rather than corrects them. All his attempts to change his status and his effectiveness in the group are to no avail.

The circular process theory of social interaction throws considerable light on what goes on in the relationships of members of a group and explains why this "vicious circle" effect takes place. This process can be divided into 4 steps:

I. The Inner Process within Member

Each member enters a group with fairly well-defined *feelings about himself*. He expects to be considered important, to be liked, and to be respected. Or he fears he'll be considered insignificant, disliked and disdained. And, of course, there are various gradations between these 2 extremes.

These feelings about himself to some extent affect his *attitudes toward others* even though he may previously have known nothing about the others. For example, if he thinks too highly of himself,



he is less likely to think highly of others. However, what he thinks about others may also be the result of expectations created by what he has heard beforehand or what he expects from the group situation itself.

These inner processes shape an individual's *intentions toward others* and lead to

II. Behavior toward Others

This may be either *initiated behavior toward others* for which the group member is responsible or it may be in *response to behavior from others.*

In either case we have what may be called his *behavior output* to which other members of the group react leading to

III. Process within the Others

The other members of the group have attitudes and feelings about themselves and about their fellow member which inevitably effect their *perception* of what the other does and says. Furthermore, they bring to the group certain *expectations* about him which influence their reactions to his behavior. Both their perceptions and their expectations lead to their *evaluation* of the other's behavior output.

This evaluation shapes their *intentions toward the member* and leads to

IV. Behavioral Feedback from Others

This includes both *initiated action towards member* and *reactions to behavior of member* and results in *behavior input from members.*

The behavior input from members may undergo some distortion because of the *perception by member,* all of which is part of the *feedback.* From this point on the member is involved in *processing feedback* to determine his future behavior to other members of the group.

And so the process goes on and on, oftentimes creating group member "personalities" that are far removed from their real selves.

A Hypothetical Case

To better understand the circular process of social interaction, let us take a hypothetical individual through the 4 steps.

I. Inner Process within Member

Our group member is a really capable individual who happens not to be at his best in group situations. He tends to be shy and retiring in the presence of others. Hence he is subject to a *fearful withholding of positive resources.*

To a person accustomed to working in groups this individual's inability to enter easily into the group discussion is hard to understand, but to a member so constituted, the barriers to such normal participation are very real. Since he is genuinely capable and knows many of the answers that the group is struggling to obtain, his inability to enter normally into the discussion leads to *internal pressures to express or conceal feelings.* The more these pressures build up in him, the more distorted become his attitudes about the situation he is in and this leads to *inappropriate intentions toward others.*

II. Behavior toward Others

It becomes increasingly impossible now for the member to make a satisfactory contribution to the group in terms of his real capabilities; instead his behavior would seem to indicate *inability to utilize resources.* And if the pressures are strong enough and the resistance appears to him to be formidable enough he may indulge in *disruptive behavior* as well as *inappropriate volume and targets of behavior output.* He attacks personalities rather than problems and makes an issue out of what is of minor importance. He now is under pressure to assert himself.

III. Process within Others

The others in the group seldom take time, even if they could, to analyze the situation as it actually is. To them the group member's behavior fits a pattern with which they are all too familiar; his inappropriate behavior leads them to *oversimplified perceptions or stereotypes* about him. As they now see him, the group member is a "blow hard" or he has a "chip on his shoulder." Their perception of his behavior leads to *invalid generalizations* about him and this results in *inappropriate intentions toward member.* They are going to "squelch him" or put him in his place.

IV. Behavioral Feedback from Others

When the others have stereotyped the member's behavior, their responses to him as revealed in both word and gesture indicate to him, if nothing else, that he has "not gotten across," instead there is *ambiguity or distortion of evaluative messages* which come to him from the others. In fact, the communication that is now taking place between him and the others has little or no bearing on the task at hand, the *messages are out of line with the desired change.*

Consequently there is *inappropriate volume and target of feedback.* The feedback he has received from others tells him nothing about the contributions he wanted to make to the group's discussion, but seem to tell him a lot about his status in the group and the other member's reaction to his personality.

There are 2 "normal" responses that he can make to this type of feedback: *insensitivity or defenses.* If he is "thick-skinned" or has become hardened by similar experiences in the past, he will remain insensitive to the attitude and behavior of the others in the group; if not, he will try to build up defenses of his position and his behavior. In either case the final result will be *inability to use information for change;* the genuine contributions which he could have made to the group are now lost and his continued presence in the group will add nothing to its accomplishments and may even prove a handicap.

The Looking Glass Self

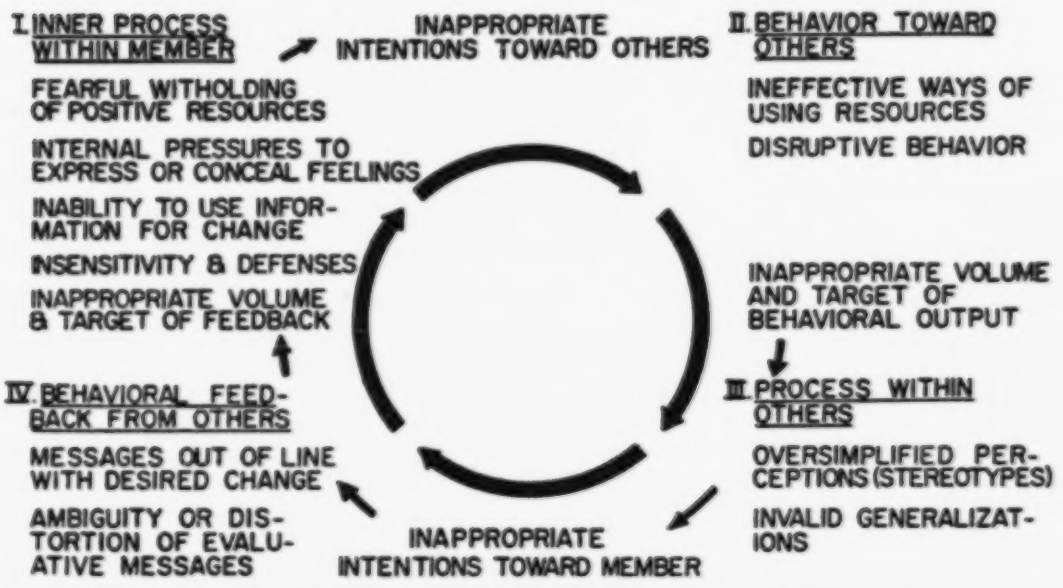
Two questions which naturally come to mind in regard to this circular process of social interaction are: How does it get started the way it does? and how can we change it?

As we have seen, among the most important factors in the process are the attitudes which this group member holds about himself at the start. Often these feelings about self bear little or no relation to an individual's real capabilities. All of us have friends who have better than average talents but are shy and retiring, and others who have all the self-confidence in the world but few real capabilities. How does this happen?

The best explanation of this peculiar phenomenon can be found in a theory developed by Charles Horton Cooley and to which he gave the name, "The Looking Glass Self."

According to this theory every individual in his very earliest childhood develops a concept of his own personality as he sees himself in the eyes of his parents and of others in his immediate environment. If his parents, for example, look upon the child with loving eyes, praising him for whatever he succeeds in doing and perhaps de-emphasizing his mistakes, the child will grow up with a high degree of self-confidence.

On the other hand, if the parents demand that he measure up to the accomplishments of an older brother or sister or some ideal that exists only in their minds, and constantly frown upon his inability to reach this standard, his self-confidence will be greatly shaken. He may early develop what is popularly known as an "inferiority complex."


THE CIRCULAR PROCESS
I. INNER PROCESS WITHIN MEMBER
FEARFUL WITHOLDING OF POSITIVE RESOURCES
INTERNAL PRESSURES TO EXPRESS OR CONCEAL FEELINGS
INABILITY TO USE INFORMATION FOR CHANGE
INSENSITIVITY & DEFENSES
INAPPROPRIATE VOLUME & TARGET OF FEEDBACK
IV. BEHAVIORAL FEEDBACK FROM OTHERS
MESSAGES OUT OF LINE WITH DESIRED CHANGE
AMBIGUITY OR DISTORTION OF EVALUATIVE MESSAGES
INAPPROPRIATE INTENTIONS TOWARD OTHERS
II. BEHAVIOR TOWARD OTHERS
INEFFECTIVE WAYS OF USING RESOURCES
DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOR
INAPPROPRIATE VOLUME AND TARGET OF BEHAVIORAL OUTPUT
III. PROCESS WITHIN OTHERS
OVERSIMPLIFIED PERCEPTIONS (STEREOTYPES)
INVALID GENERALIZATIONS
INAPPROPRIATE INTENTIONS TOWARD MEMBER

In either case, his image of himself will bear little relation either to his potentials or to his known capabilities. The shy child whose parents are disappointed because he is not an outstanding scholar, may have real potential for becoming an artist, or an athlete. The completely confident child may reveal little real ability in any field but the chances are good that he will "get by" in life on his personality. He will "charm" other people into doing the job for which he may get the credit.

If the early childhood environment contains others besides the parents in whose eyes the child sees himself, he stands a somewhat better chance of developing a concept of himself more in line with his capabilities. Brothers and sisters near the same age, for example, may be more critical of the child's behavior than are their over-indulgent parents; or they may encourage the child in the activities upon which their parents frown and in which he can build self-confidence because these activities are in line with his capabilities.

Whatever picture the child creates of himself in his early environment stays with him, as a rule, until his environment changes drastically. Individuals who remain pretty much in the same environment all their lives often retain this early image of their personalities throughout the rest of their lives. Others who go off to college or into the army, may have it changed for them or have it brought more in line with reality, at least in specific situations. A once over-confident person, for example, may lose his over-confidence in the business world but retain it in his relationships with his family. Conversely a person who grew up shy and retiring may develop unlimited confidence in his professional field as his talents develop and are given recognition.

Harnessing the Circular Process

The fact that the original image a person holds of himself can be changed by proper handling gives us the clue to the manner in which we can harness the circular process to achieve group goals.

This requires concentration on the group-maintenance level and the individual-need level of group activity. An understanding of group process by all the members of the group is essential here. Through this knowledge group members learn the need for some member of the group (and not just the designated leader) to encourage shy members, to seek information or opinions from them, to clarify ideas poorly stated, to pull together related contributions, and in a dozen other ways to make participation in the group's discussion easy and pleaasnt for ali concerned. This lessens the tensions which so often get the circular process off to a bad start.

A group which consciously strives to become a mature group in this way, can completely alter a member's relationships to it. They can insure that his contribution will be in line with his real capabilities. And in so doing they can tap individual resources otherwise not available to the group.

(Training Sessions—one hour)

Discuss the circular process and the looking glass self concepts as they relate to your own experience. Do these concepts have meaning to groups of all kinds or only to limited types of groups, for example, the family, civic groups, committees, etc.? Do these concepts help explain the readiness of some individuals or the reluctance of others to accept the changes in attitudes, values and behavior patterns which groups may demand in order to achieve solutions to their problems.

PRINCIPLES OF GROUP PROCESS

(General Session — 45 minutes)

Most organized groups consciously or unconsciously seek to bring about changes in the attitudes, values, or behavior of their members. In order for these changes to be effective certain basic principles should be kept in mind. The following such principles are relevant to a wide variety of group situations and are, therefore, particularly worth noting.*

The Principle of INDIGENOUS LEADERSHIP:

Change can be most effectively brought about when persons exerting influence for change are considered without reservation to be members in full by the group of people who are to be changed.

*Based on "Achieving Change in People" by Dorwin Cartwright, *Human Relations* Vol. IV. No. 4, 1951.

A member of a community club, home demonstration club, or commodity committee can be much more effective in introducing new practices to the group than can a specialist or Extension Agent. The latter will always be looked upon by some members of the group, at least, as outsiders who do not enjoy full membership in the local group.

Whenever the specialists or agents intrude themselves in the decision making of the group, particularly in regard to analyzing needs and setting up goals, they weaken the motivating forces which the group can exert towards accomplishing its goals. As resource persons, on the other hand, they can operate without restriction in providing, on request, the technical know-how necessary to fulfill these goals.

A few over-aggressive or over-zealous leaders can also weaken the effectiveness of the group as a motivating force in accomplishing changes when they seek to impose their wills on the group. The feeling of belonging which is so important to all members of the group stems largely from the conviction held by individual members that their opinions are important in group decisions. And, of course, if their opinions are not sought or are ignored, they tend to write off the group as one to which they do not fully belong and one which has no real claim on their loyalty and support.

The Principle of GROUP ATTRACTION:

The more attractive a group is to its members the greater is the influence that it can exert on them.

Man is a social being. As a consequence many of his individual needs can only be satisfied by his association with other people; that is, through groups. In fact, his interpersonal relationships are the very essence of his existence and help to shape his attitudes, his values, and his behavior patterns.

Man's attraction to groups can be classified under 2 major headings:

1. **Interests**, of which there are 4 kinds:
   (a) Groups can help in the achievement of individual goals. People join specific groups for such purposes as to achieve status in their community, to improve their spiritual life, or to broaden their cultural horizons.

   In the case of status, the goal may be momentarily achieved by the act of joining, in which case the individual may look for other more prestigious groups in which to gain membership. In all cases, however, the basis of attraction lies in the personal goals to be achieved through membership. Since many groups exist in almost every community through which the individual could satisfy these personal needs, the holding power of any one group is slight. In some cases, the individual may even find he can a-

chieve his goals in other ways than through membership in a specific group.

(b) The activities of the group are attractive to the member. Individuals join both formal and informal groups to play bridge, bowl, swim, dance, study the stock market, discuss international affairs, literature, art and music, and to carry on a host of other activities.

The drawing power of such groups often is limited to the activity. People may lose interest in the activity itself (for reasons of health, aging, etc.), find other groups that are more "congenial" for the same activity, or are forced by their crowded schedules to drop their memberships in these groups. In any case, groups whose attraction lies solely in an activity are relatively unimportant in people's lives.

(c) Membership in the group is a path to goals outside the group. A young lawyer may join a particular political group because only in this way, so he thinks, can he gain access to the courthouse or statehouse crowd.

(d) Group membership may be a means of providing security against a real or imagined danger in the environment. Pioneers found such groups essential against Indian attack. Today many people join extremist political groups because of their fear of communist attack or subversion. Since such groups often make many enemies by their disregard for democratic processes, they become the target of attack from groups which are determined to maintain the democratic system. For the members of the extremist groups the danger is now even more real. Membership in such groups usually lasts only as long as the members can be made to believe that danger exists.

2. **Psychological needs.** Most groups, regardless of their stated purposes, satisfy deep psychological needs of their members in varying degrees. For some groups, such as the family, the satisfaction of these needs may be the only force that holds the group together. In volunteer groups where interest is supposedly the basic attraction to the group, the extent to which the group satisfies these psychological needs may actually determine how well the group maintains its membership. When faced with the choice between two bridge clubs, two garden clubs, or even two churches, in which the interest factor could be said to be equivalent, the decisions will generally rest on the fact that the chosen group does a better job of satisfying the psychological needs of the member. In fact, in many groups, the interest factor, while it was of primary importance in drawing the member into the group, may become of secondary importance or of no importance at all if the psychological needs are being well taken care of. Whether we want to admit it or not, this is true for many people in our churches, our service clubs and in other volunteer groups.

The psychological needs which the individual can only satisfy in his interpersonal relationships, that is, in groups, have been classified in the following three categories:

1. Response. This is love as it exists in the family, fellowship or affection in somewhat less intimate groups.
2. Security. The feeling of belonging as an equal to the group so that one refers to the group as "we" instead of "they."
3. Recognition. Being recognized as an individual personality with all that implies in terms of individual differences, such as skills, likes and dislikes, and desires.

All normal human beings are subject to these psychological needs or desires in varying degrees in all their group relationships. Group leaders can, therefore, greatly strengthen the attraction of their groups by involving the members in the kinds of activities in which these desires can best be satisfied.

Threats to Group Attraction

When the interest factor in a group is diminished, the attraction of the group to its members (called by some "group cohesion") will be threatened. A group which once had high prestige in a community but is superseded by other groups may find its members drifting away because they lose status with the group. The competition of other groups offering the satisfaction of similar needs will also draw members from the group, particularily if the facilities they offer are more attractive. Thus, people transfer their membership from one church to another because they like the preaching, the new organ, or even the pews of the new church better. Unpleasant experiences will also lessen the drawing power of interest groups. People who are offended or discomfited by smoking or drinking, for example, often withdraw from bridge clubs, bowling teams, and other interest groups when these practices are introduced.

In all these cases, however, the weakening of the interest factor may be offset to a high degree by the members' satisfaction of their psychological needs within the group. The life of many groups may even be extended far beyond their usefulness in serving their avowed purpose because the group provides affectional relationships, affords members emotional security, or gives them a sense of significance to others which they find more satisfying than the interests they originally sought in the group. And in such groups, people will put up with unpleasantnesses that they would not tolerate in other situations because their psychological needs are being so well taken care of.

The failure of many groups to maintain attraction for their members may, on the other hand, be primarily due to factors which prevent the members from fully satisfying their psychological needs within the group. Too much concentration on the group's goals, or the business aspects of the organization with no time left for " mixing" may prevent some members from ever feeling at home in a group. The exclusion of all but a few members from decision making may lead others to feel that their own desires and opinions are un-

important to the group. And when a few people are allowed to monopolize the opportunities for self expression, others will feel frustrated because they are given no chance to acquire a sense of significance to the group.

Those group members who are usually thought of as fringe members, who participate less in group activities and seldom assume responsibility, usually are such because they find less satisfaction of their psychological needs within the group. They have not yet been involved in the kinds of group activities where they can completely forget the differences (their speech, their clothes, their manners, for example) that set them off from the "regular guys"; their opinions are seldom, if ever, asked, and no attempt has been made to find the kind of skill they possess, the exercise of which in helping to achieve group goals could give them a sense of significance to the group.

Sometimes, of course, attempts are made too consciously to draw these fringe members into the group, and these usually fail. The fringe members want to be absorbed into the life of the group, not pushed into the spotlight where their differences will stand out more glaringly than ever.

The responsibilities they are asked to assume, no matter how simple, may be distasteful to them for one of several reasons: (1) these responsibilities may be so unfamiliar that there is real danger of their failing; (2) the responsibilities may be things they can do, but which they think would bemean them in the eyes of the group; and, of course, there is always the possibility (3) that the responsibilities may be greater than they think the group is worth. This could well be a measure of how much the group has satisfied their psychological needs up to this point.

The Principle of
RELEVANCE OF GOALS:

In attempts to change attitudes, values or behavior, the more relevant these changes are to the stated purpose of the group, the greater will be the influence the group can exert.

Labor unions generally are quite successful in effecting changes in the behavior and attitudes of their members when these are related to their wages, working hours, or fringe benefits. Unions are not so successful in effecting changes in the political thinking of their members, simply because the members do not consider that political activity is relevant to the purpose of the unions.

In a similar fashion, churches have not greatly influenced the business principles or political activities of their members for the same reason. The fact that some church leaders consider (rightly or wrongly) that these activities are relevant to the purpose of the church is unimportant; it is what the members as a whole think that counts.

The Principle of
LEADERSHIP PRESTIGE:

The greater the prestige of a group member in the eyes of other members, the greater is the influence he can exert on the group.

This prestige will be most effective when it relates to the kind of change with which the group is concerned. Making known the fact that a man has 11 children or that his ancestors came over in the Mayflower will not be as helpful to him in working with an agricultural committee as the fact that, pound for pound, he made more money on his livestock last year than any other man in the county.

Whoever is asked to take a leadership role in trying to bring about changes deserves credit for whatever qualifications for the job he happens to have. In no case should he be handicapped by being introduced as a substitute for someone else.

The Principle of
FELT NEEDS:

The more group members discover for themselves the need for change, the stronger will be the pressure for change from within the group.

All the members of a group who are to be involved in carrying out a change need to go through the process of uncovering their needs. To the extent that this task is relegated to a select number of individuals such as a committee, to that extent the burden of carrying out the change will rest upon the committee rather than upon the group as a whole.

And when an outsider presumes to tell the members of a group what their needs are, the resulting goals set by the group will be referred to not as "our" goals, but as "his" goals, and the pressure to carry out the goals will be weakened.

Professional adult educators who are responsible for the acceptance of new practices too often fail to trust the people to come up with the "right" needs and the resulting "right" goals. Generally this lack of trust is not justified by the facts. If the people have any competence at all, they will not fail to recognize those needs which they have the resources to do something about. These are the only "right" goals because they are the only ones upon which they will be motivated to act. They may give lip service to needs which others have pointed out to them; they will not always take these needs to heart.

The Principle of
FEEDBACK:

All relevant members of a group need to share in information relating not only to the need for change, but also to plans for change, and the consequences of change.

Too often when group needs have been analyzed and goals set, a few group leaders will "carry the ball" without concern for keeping other group members involved or informed. As a result resistances begin to build up which in time can adversely affect the achievement of group goals. Expressions such as: "I didn't know that we had decided—" indicate that somebody in the group has been bypassed and is in danger of dropping his support for the activity at hand.

These principles are only a few of those which are helpful in making groups more effective. When they are ignored, group productivity suffers and the loyalty of members to the group may be weakened. When these principles are conscientiously adhered to by group leaders, the success of the group in carrying out its appointed task will be assured. Examining the procedures of a particular group in the light of these principles may often uncover difficulties which are preventing the group from achieving its ends.

(*Training Sessions—one hour*)

The participants will devote the hour to a discussion of how the principles of group process can be used as guidelines in setting up the organization(s) they previously had decided on to achieve solutions to their county problems.

THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS IN GROUPS

(*General Session — 20 minutes*)

What Is An Effective Decision?

One of the common experiences in groups is the difficulty in arriving at decisions which are then actually carried out in action. Here is a way of looking at group decision-making as a step-by-step problem-solving process. This process is effective only when every member of the group feels free to contribute to the discussion of each step and thus has a voice in shaping the final decision.

The **first step** is to take time to *carefully define the problem* about which the group is attempting a decision. The group will need to analyze the problem in relation to the resources that are available to them for its solution and the conditions that are involved in the problem itself.

The **second step** is to list without discussion all the alternative solutions which are possible. This means getting away from the simple *either* "this way" or "that way." If members of a group are free to propose as many alternatives as they can without feeling that these must be defended, then a group can make maximum use of the imagination which is available to them.

The **third step** is to weigh all alternatives in terms of consequences to which they would lead if adopted for action. They should rehearse in an imaginative discussion the various alter-

natives so that they can determine how they feel about them as well as *what they know* about the alternatives.

The **fourth step** is to test all alternatives through discussion to determine what the decision will require in action from individual members as well as from the group as a whole. This is a testing of whether or not the group is in a position to do what a decision will require of it.

The **fifth step** is to choose that solution gaining most support from the group; insofar as possible this should be done through consensus rather than by majority vote since the latter procedure forces people into committing themselves in a manner that makes flexibility difficult.

The **sixth step** is to decide and then organize for carrying out the decision outside the meeting. Individual assignments for action need to be made and accepted and possibly sub-group (two or more persons) assignments need to be developed.

The **seventh step** is to provide for a later evaluation of the results of the decision.

THE STEPS IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

1. DEFINE THE PROBLEM.
2. AIR ALL POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS.
3. WEIGH CONSEQUENCES TO WHICH EACH WOULD LEAD.
4. DETERMINE WHAT EACH WOULD REQUIRE OF GROUP MEMBERS.
5. CHOOSE THE SOLUTION GAINING MOST SUPPORT.
6. ORGANIZE FOR CARRYING OUT THE DECISION.
7. PROVIDE FOR LATER EVALUATION OF RESULTS.

ENCOURAGE THE GROUP AS A WHOLE
TO INVOLVE ALL MEMBERS OF THE
GROUP AT EACH STEP IN THE PROCESS

The above is a description of a decision-making process. The purpose of a group decision is to achieve well-considered, well-understood realistic action toward commonly desired goals. A decision is good psychologically and effective only if it motivates those who develop it to act upon it. Is it effective in leading to actions consistent with its purpose? Does it generate commitment and individual and collective action consistent with it? If the answer to these is yes, then the decision is effective psychologically.

We know, of course, that these logical and psychological criteria are not met in many group decision-making processes which we share. Some groups are indecisive. They do not act. Some groups argue without end over unimportant items. Others rush into action only to reverse their decision at the next meeting and fail to carry it out. Some groups transfer their own "decision-difficulties" to subcommittees which may or may not be able to respond decisively. Others look for a miracle to save them from decisions. What are the barriers to effective group decision?

Some Reasons For Group Indecision

1. **Fear of Consequences.** Individuals and sub-groups within the group may be paralyzed by fear of consequences of acting at all. "Will we be able to act differently than we now act? What will the public think of our making such a decision? What will powerful individuals, not in the meeting, think of our decision?"

2. **Conflicting Loyalties.** Each group member belongs to groups other than the one in which he is engaged in decision. Frequently, loyalties are divided between this group and the others to make members indecisive, or at other times members are so impulsive as to act before deliberation. Frequently, these conflicting loyalties are not put on the table but operate as hidden forces, leading to blocking or pressing behaviors of various sorts.

3. **Interpersonal or Interfactional Conflict.** Sometimes defeating or defending against other persons or factions in a group (or at other times appeasing other persons) is more important to a member psychologically than hearing and weighing the contributions of others and working these into a tested common decision. We test contributions by their sources or by "personalities," rather than by their merits in relation to the problem which we are solving.

4. **Rigid Decision-Making Methods.** Different kinds of decision-making difficulties call for different methods of procedure. Yet many groups are frozen in their methods of knowing only how to discuss or to use Roberts' Rules of Order or what not, however inadequate these methods are to getting the problem solved. Continual effort toward trying new methods and freeing group imagination is needed to combat rigidity on the method side.

The Task of Leadership

The problem of decision-making in most enduring groups is not only to get the best solution on a particular issue but also to devise

ways of controlling factors making for indecision. The logical and psychological requirements of effective decision-making can thus be better and better met as skill and organization improve over time. In other words, leadership in most deciding groups should become training, as well as coordinating, leadership.

(*Training Sessions—40 minutes*)

All of the training groups should remain together in general session. The recorder of each group will present to the assembled workshop participants a report on the decisions taken by his group up to the present time. This should be followed by a general discussion and an evaluation of the reports in terms of the theoretical principles presented in the workshop.

PLANNED CHANGE

(*General Session—20 minutes*)

Planned change is the conscious effort to plan and give help to someone else—a person, group, or organization, for the purpose of meeting needs and increasing satisfaction. The individual or group attempting to give help is known as the change agent, and the person, group or organization which is helped to change is the client system. The change agent works with the client system to bring about change.

Whenever such changes are contemplated it is essential to recognize at the start that every change involves (in varying amounts) both rational and non-rational components. These can be indicated in the following manner.

Rational		Non-rational
knowledge	knowledge-attitudes	attitudes
practices	practices-habits	habits

When the non-rational components are ignored in the efforts to bring about change, failure may result. However, changing people's attitudes and habits in order to get them to take on new practices or accept new knowledge may often have ethical connotations. What right do we have, therefore, to make people act differently from what they would otherwise act?

Let us look at some basic assumptions:

1. In our society there are social and technological problems involving varying degrees of tension and conflict between individuals or groups and/or their value systems.
2. It is better that these problems be solved than that they remain unsolved.
3. The time factor is so important and our social order so complex that these problems cannot wait for trial and error solutions. Deliberate change is in our system of democratic and scientific

values. So long as we abide by these principles we may feel justified in assuming the right to help others achieve change.

a. Democracy should be identified with the process by which changes are achieved, not with specific solutions.
   (1) Public housing may seem democratic to some, but private housing may seem equally so to others.
   (2) The process of change should be collaborative, ideally involving all the people affected by the change.

b. Our methods of problem-solving must be experimental. The opposite leads to the conviction that one's present views are right beyond question.
   (1) No single solution to any genuine problem.
   (2) Experimental attitude means giving any novel plan a try and building into the plan methods of evaluation which will reveal whether or not the altered practices approach the desired goal.

c. The method of change must itself be educational and/or therapeutic for the people involved, leaving them better able to cope with future problems.
   (1) the idea is not to get away from problems, which is to escape reality, but rather to know better how to analyze problems and to help solve them.

d. The approach to the problem should be *task oriented* rather than *prestige oriented.* If we look at all solutions (regardless of who originated them) as alternative solutions to be tested in terms of the task to be accomplished, we are more likely to find the most workable solution.

Persons operating as change agents need constantly to be aware of their own major motivations. Self-knowledge does not necessarily make one more ethical, but it does help the change agent bring his efforts to change others in line with his ethical commitments. No matter what our jobs be, all of us have such ethical commitments by which we are expected to abide.

The client (farmer, housewife, etc.) should have complete freedom to choose or reject the services of the change agent without threat of retaliation in any form. Such freedom is greater the more the relationship between the client and the change agent is one of true collaboration.

(*Training Sessions—one hour*)

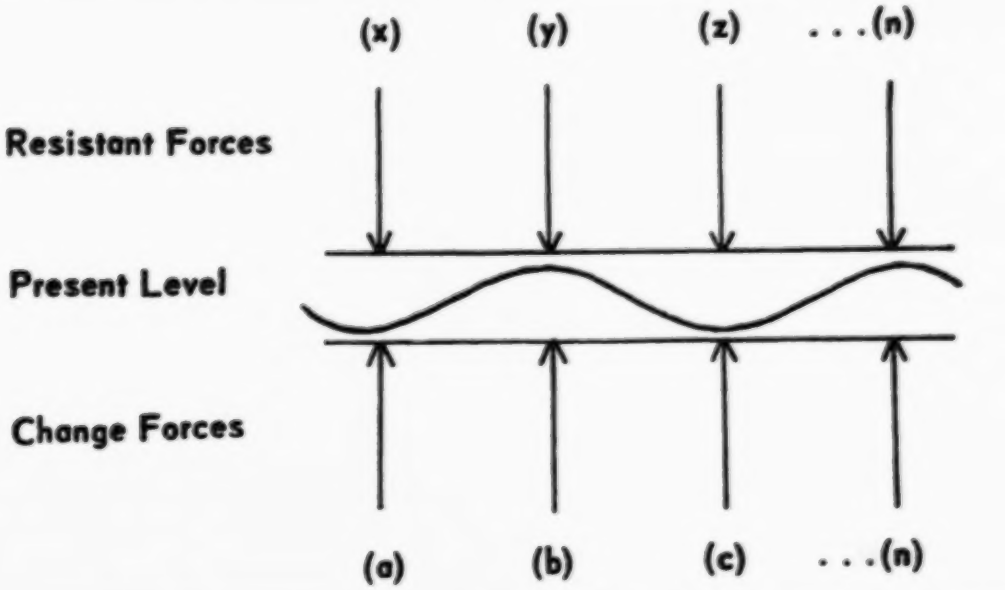
Follow the group decision-making process to arrive at a satisfactory solution to one of your county problems. At each step think of yourselves as citizens of the county and react accordingly. Designate those organizations and agencies in the county which can act as resources in providing the information and skills needed to carry out the solution.

WAYS OF LOOKING AT CHANGE

(General Session—40 minutes)

Let us begin by accepting the fact that change is constant in all experience. No person, group, organization, or community, is exempt from change at some time. As our lives become increasingly complex, changes occur more readily than ever before. We live in a world of change.

Each situation of human behavior can be seen as a balance of forces at work—"a field of forces." Some of these forces at work are those which maintain the situation as it is, these are the *resistant forces.* Other forces are those which seek to alter the situation—disturb the balance—these are the *change forces.* These opposing forces can be illustrated in the following manner:



Many different blocks to change are found in all group situations. They may apply to (1) individuals, (2) groups, (3) organizations, and (4) communities, or in some cases to one or two of these but not all. They are:

1. Inertia and fear of change—the NEW is unknown; the OLD, even if inadequate, is familiar.
2. Perception or view of the situation as satisfactory (low level of aspiration).
3. Unclear goal or change target.
4. Conflict of interest—competing demands, unshared goals, energy or power diffused.
5. Self-interest is not associated with the change target (lack of responsibility).
6. Vested interest in the way things are.

7. Functional weaknesses: lack of adequate procedures, and/or organizational machinery.

8. Fear of consequences: threat of exposing or admitting a weakness, failure, loss of prestige, possible internal disruption, change that may not become stabilized.

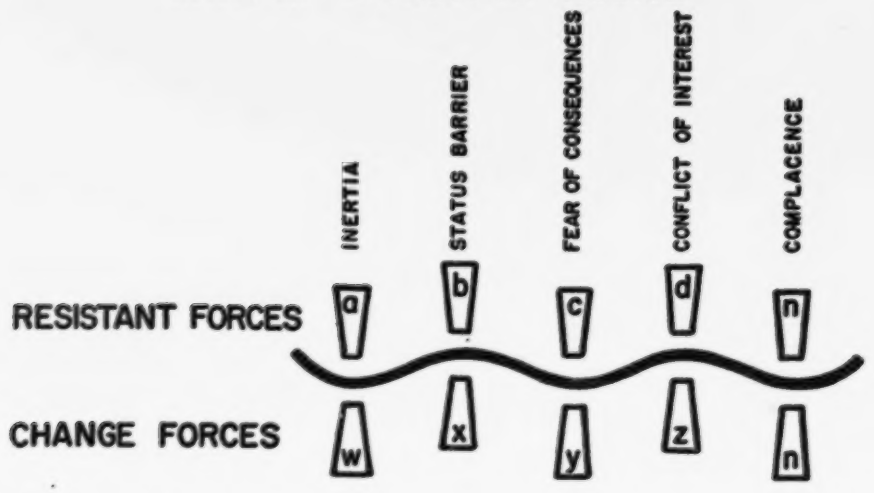
9. Fragmentation or disunity: lack of interaction, or destructive tension and hostility due to interaction.

10. Status barriers—class, ethnic, religious or other perceived differentials in personal and group work which cause rejection or unequal treatment, non-participation.

11. Traditions, standards, desires, values absorbed from, or imposed by, the surrounding culture.

12. Bad luck—unforeseen events which impinge upon change efforts.

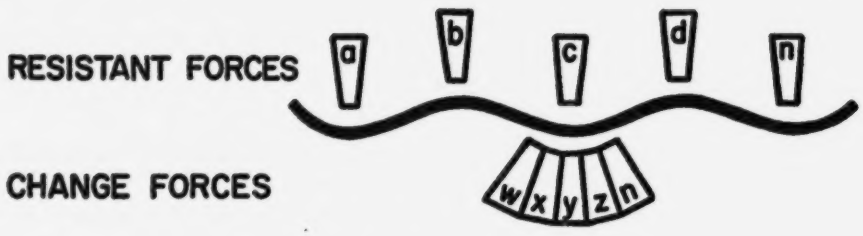
WAYS OF LOOKING AT CHANGE



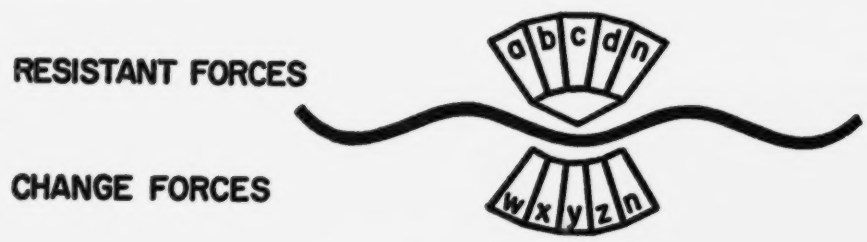
a. Change and Resistant Forces in Equilibrium

When a situation is thoroughly analyzed and these blocks to change are brought out into the open, many of them will be seen to lack validity. For example, it may be demonstrated that the proposed change will serve vested interests rather than opposing them. Or fears of what may occur if change takes place may be shown to be groundless. As these blocks to change are dealt with one by one, some may disappear, resistance to change will weaken, and the balance will shift in favor of change.

On the other hand, if those who favor change attempt to quiet the opposition, keeping these blocks to change from being brought out into the open and discussed, and forcing through change by majority vote, opposition will solidify. Individuals who hold completely incompatible reasons for resisting change will find common cause with



b. The Frontal Attack Against Resistant Forces



c. Resistant Forces Brought together in a Common Cause to Resist Change

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each other. This may even cause the balance of forces to shift in the opposite direction.

Some typical (and usually ineffective) ways we try to handle resistance:

1. **"Advice-giving"**—attempting to tell other people what "I would do if—."
2. **Censoring**—expression of attitudes of disapproval on supposedly "ethical" grounds.
3. **Defense**—viewing resistance or opposition as a personal threat or attack.
4. **Persuasion**—attempting to "rationally" and "forcefully" argue persons out of their resistance, thus meeting *feelings* with *ideas* (or *information*) rather than helping feelings to get expressed.
5. **Controlling**—seeking to gain enough power (influence) or authority to force change by controlling opposition.
6. **Punishing**—rejection of persons who are resisting or opposing and overt personal "attacks" upon their motives, etc.

Some helps for dealing with resistance:

1. **Diagnosis**—analysis of the situation to determine the "what" and "why" of the forces at work—both change and resistance.
2. **Ventilation**—creating a climate where opposition can be openly expressed and analyzed.
3. **Flexibility**—having sufficient alternatives in personal roles and in the situation to be able to act appropriately.
4. **More effective** problem solving processes.*

*Reference: Lippitt, Watson & Westley, *The Dynamics of Planned Change.*

(Training Sessions—30 minutes)

All training groups remain together in general session. Instruct the recorders of each group to report on the solutions to county problems arrived at by their groups. Also have them indicate the resource agencies to whom their groups recommend turning for information and specialized skills needed to carry out the solutions. Discuss the reports of each group and evaluate them. Raise questions as to number of alternative solutions considered and how they were narrowed down to the final choice.

PARTNERS IN CHANGE

(General Session—45 minutes)

It is to be hoped that the process through which the workshop has brought us so far will have demonstrated that both professional workers and the designated leaders of groups are most effective when they see their role as that of being partners with the people in bringing about change.

This may become clearer if we illustrate the manner in which designated leaders may operate, with the advantages and disadvantages of each approach.

Type	Disadvantages	Advantages
Autocratic		
Does everything	More hostility	More production while leader watches
Manipulates others	More dependence	Quicker decisions
Gets own way	More apathy	
Pushes group	Slower execution	
Laissez Faire		
Does nothing	Less satisfaction	No work for leader
Ignores others	Less production	
Lets each go own way	Poorer quality of work	
Just sits	Less personal growth	
	Job falls back on someone	
Democratic		
Does something, not everything	Slower decisions	More responsibility
Helps group get its way		More friendliness
Pulls with group		More personal growth
Respects others		Better implementation
		More motivation

Finally this leads to the question, what is our job as change agents in a world of change?

A. The role of the change agent as a leader is that of a partner in helping individuals and groups to clarify what they are trying to solve, and in finding ways of making changes, in an atmosphere of freedom.

B. Groups and individuals, unless pathologically upset, tend toward health if given freedom.

C. Whatever tends toward healthy group life frees people to be more truly themselves, therefore more capable of developing their human resources to the full.

D. The implication of this for our work is that the role of the change agent is not one of mobilizing people to help him in the performance of his responsibilities, but one of helping them exercise their own capacities for leadership to the utmost.

E. The successful change agent, therefore, is one who accepts as his major responsibility the development in others of the capacity to solve their own problems and to initiate desirable changes in their own lives. This he can only do as a partner who is free to withdraw when change has been accomplished.

When we accept our roles as partners in change, we see more clearly than ever before the contrast of this approach to that of the manipulator. This may be demonstrated in the following manner:

Manipulator	Partner
Unclear or dominating motives	Clear motives
Denial of need satisfaction	Sharing in order to fulfill needs
Imposition of conditions that hinder	Relief of conditions that bind
Growing dependence on the part of the manipulated	Increased ability of clients to handle future change situations
Minimal growth	Growth

(*Training Sessions—30 minutes*)

Request your process observer to analyze the interpersonal relations that took place during the training sessions and the effect these had on the group's productivity. Add your own reactions to the process analysis and any insights of your own that the training sessions have revealed to you.

APPENDIX I

Workshop Schedule

Where workshop attenders live close by and can commute back and forth from their homes, a 2½ day workshop should be planned with no evening sessions. In this case each day should begin at 9 A.M. Sessions should end between 4:15 and 4:45 P.M., except on the last day when they will close before lunch.

If the workshop attenders are drawn from a larger area and sleeping accommodations are provided for them at or near the workshop site, it would be just as well to telescope the workshop into a solid 2-day program, with night sessions on the evening of the first day, and ending in the afternoon of the second day.

Below are given the hour by hour schedules of the 2 types of workshops.

Two-and-a-Half Day Workshop

First Day

9:00- 9:30	A.M.—General Session A	Introduction to the Workshop
9:30-10:30	A.M.—Training Session I	
10:30-10:45	A.M.—Coffee Break	
10:45-11:15	A.M.—General Session B	Group Norms and Goals
11:15-12:00	A.M.—Training Session II	
	Lunch	
1:30- 2:15	P.M.—General Session C	Conformity Pressure
2:15- 3:15	P.M.—Training Session III	
3:15- 3:30	P.M.—Coffee Break	
3:30- 4:15	P.M.—General Session D	Circular Process

Second Day

9:00-10:00	A.M.—Training Session IV	
10:00-10:15	A.M.—Coffee Break	
10:15-11:00	A.M.—General Session E	Group Process
11:00-12:00	A.M.—Training Session V	
	Lunch	
1:30- 1:50	P.M.—General Session F	Decision-Making Process
1:50- 2:30	P.M.—Training Session VI	
2:30- 2:45	P.M.—Coffee Break	
2:45- 3:05	P.M.—General Session G	Planned Change
3:05- 4:05	P.M.—Training Session VII	
4:05- 4:45	P.M.—General Session H	Ways of Looking at Change

Third Day

9:00- 9:30	A.M.—Training Session VIII	
9:30-10:15	A.M.—General Session I	Partners in Change
10:15-10:30	A.M.—Coffee Break	
10:30-11:00	A.M.—Training Session IX.	

TWO DAY WORKSHOP

First Day

9:00- 9:30	A.M.—General Session A	Introduction to the Workshop
9:30-10:30	A.M.—Training Session I	
10:30-10:45	A.M.—Coffee Break	
10:45-11:15	A.M.—General Session B	Group Norms
11:15-12:00	A.M.—Training Session II	
	Lunch	
1:30- 2:15	P.M.—General Session C	Conformity Pressures
2:15- 3:15	P.M.—Training Session III	
3:15- 3:30	P.M.—Coffee Break	
3:30- 4:15	P.M.—General Session D	Circular Process
	Dinner	
7:00- 8:00	P.M.—Training Session IV	
8:00- 8:45	P.M.—General Session E	Group Process

Second Day

8:30- 9:30	A.M.—Training Session V	
9:30- 9:50	A.M.—General Session F	Decision-Making Process
9:50-10:30	A.M.—Training Session VI	
10:30-10:45	A.M.—Coffee Break	
10:45-11:05	A.M.—General Session G	Planned Change
11:05-12:05	A.M.—Training Session VII	
	Lunch	
1:30- 2:10	P.M.—General Session H	Ways of Looking at Change
2:10- 2:40	P.M.—Training Session VIII	
2:40- 2:55	P.M.—Coffee Break	
2:55- 3:40	P.M.—General Session I	Partners in Change
3:40- 4:10	P.M.—Training Session IX	

APPENDIX II

County Data Sheet

Evergreen County

Population	1950	Natural Increase	1960 Expected	1960 Actual	Net Migration
Evergreen	7,252	924	8176	6360	—1816

Personal Per Capita Income	1939	1950	1958
state	$422	$1,222	$1,748
Evergreen	183	586	789

Net Income Per Farm	1950	1958
U. S.	------	$2,548
state	$1,568	1,368

Level of Living Index	1945	1954
U. S.	$ 100	$ 140
state	73	119
Evergreen	54	104

Median School Years Completed	1950
state	8.5 years
Evergreen	6.8 years

There was only a 5% improvement in the state as a whole between 1940 and 1950 in regard to median school years completed. It will take until 1986 until half of the adults in the state will have had high school training.

Only 15% of U. S. farm youth will have an opportunity to become farmers on farms of sufficient size to provide an adequate acceptable level of living. This means that about 6 out of every 7 farm youth will have to look outside of farming for employment.

Per Cent Urban	1940	1950	1960
state	35%	47%	55.6%
Evergreen	0	0	0

For the U. S. as a whole about 8% of the total population can now be classed as rural-farm.

Number of Farms	1954	1959
Evergreen	977	731

Proportion of Land in Farms	1959
state	51.6%
Evergreen	58.6%

Average Size of Farms	1954	1959
U. S.	------	302.0 acres
state	107.7	134.5 acres
Evergreen	122.2	147.8 acres

Farm Operators	1954	1959
Evergreen—white	486	373
non-white	491	358
total	977	731

Average Age of Farm Operators	1954	1959
state	51.7 years	53.1 years
Evergreen	53.6 years	54.8 years

Farm Operators 65 Years Old and Over	1954	1959
Evergreen	233	198

Operators with other Income Exceeding Value of Farm Products	1954	1959
state	55,557	44,512
Evergreen	265	391

Work Off Farm 100 or More Days	1954	1959
state	49,128	33,067
Evergreen	251	196

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